

Matrix for Binomial Transform, backward difference:

FIRST DRAFT

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INTRODUCTION

In this paper we present a new approach to evaluate sums concerning binomial transformations by using the matrix calculation. We can use these calculations rewriting the formulas given in paper of Boyadzhiev [1]. In particular we improve the calculation of this formula $\sum_{k=1}^n \binom{n}{k} (-1)^{k-1} \frac{H_k}{k+x}$. In the appendix we give a new proof of A Reciprocal Summation Identity, [7]. We briefly outline the importance of the first coefficient a_0 . In the last part of the appendix we show another proof for $p \leq n$, of the theorem Boyadzhiev [1], $\sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} k^p a_k = (n \nabla)^p b_n$, Some examples of this theorem are given.

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1 Backward difference operator

In this section we explain the multiplication of the one transformation binomial. We define the backward

difference operator: $\nabla b_k = b_k - b_{k-1}$, $k \in [1, 2, \dots, n]$ and we set the next matrices

$$P = \left(P_{ij} \right) = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 0 \\ -1 & 1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -2 & 2 & \cdots & 0 & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & -n & n \end{pmatrix};$$

$$H = \left(\binom{n}{k} \right) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 2 & 1 & \cdots & 0 & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 1 & n & \frac{n(n-1)}{2} & \cdots & n & 1 \end{pmatrix}; \quad D_0 = \left(d_{ij} \right) = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 & \cdots & 0 & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & n & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

Lemma 1.1. *Let P, H, D_0 with as above, matrices of order $n + 1$, then we have.*

$$PH = HD_0. \quad (1)$$

Proof. We have $s \binom{r}{s} = r \binom{r-1}{s-1} = r \binom{r}{s} - r \binom{r-1}{s}$ and because the rs -component in the RHS in (1) is $\sum_{j=0}^n \binom{r}{j} d_{js} = s \binom{r}{s}$ and the rs -component of the LHS in (1) is $\sum_{j=0}^n p_{rj} \binom{j}{s} = r \binom{r}{s} - r \binom{r-1}{s}$, therefore we have (1). \square

Remark 1.1. *Because the matrix H is invertible we have the relation.*

$$\sum_{k=0}^n k \binom{l}{k} (-1)^{k-j} \binom{k}{j} = \begin{cases} l & \text{if } j = l; \\ -l & \text{if } j - 1 = l; \\ 0 & \text{the other case.} \end{cases}$$

This formula is similar to the formula 3.119 in Gould ([3]).

Remark 1.2. *The equation (1) we tells us that the matrices P, D_0 are similar therefore*

$$P^r H = H D_0^r, \quad \forall \quad r \in \mathbb{N}.$$

Theorem 1.1. *Let $b_n = \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} a_k$. For every positive integer p and $n \geq p$, we have*

$$\sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} k^p a_k = (n \nabla)^p b_n. \quad (2)$$

Here we need $n \geq p$ in the above formula because the RHS contains a term with b_{n-p} which is not defined for $n < p$. It's clear that we only need to prove (2) for $p = 1$ and the rest follows by iteration.

Proof. We give the prove for $p = 1$. i.e. $\sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} k a_k = (n \nabla) b_n = n(b_n - b_{n-1})$. We write the LHS of (2) in the form of vector column.

$$\begin{aligned}
& \begin{pmatrix} \sum_{k=0}^0 \binom{0}{k} k a_k \\ \sum_{k=0}^1 \binom{1}{k} k a_k \\ \sum_{k=0}^1 \binom{2}{k} k a_k \\ \vdots \\ \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} k a_k \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 2 & 1 & \cdots & 0 & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 1 & n & \frac{n(n-1)}{2} & \cdots & n & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 & \cdots & 0 & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & n & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} a_0 \\ a_1 \\ a_2 \\ \vdots \\ a_n \end{pmatrix} = \\
& = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 0 \\ -1 & 1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -2 & 2 & \cdots & 0 & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & -n & n \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 2 & 1 & \cdots & 0 & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 1 & n & \frac{n(n-1)}{2} & \cdots & n & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} a_0 \\ a_1 \\ a_2 \\ \vdots \\ a_n \end{pmatrix} = \\
& = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 0 \\ -1 & 1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -2 & 2 & \cdots & 0 & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & -n & n \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} b_0 \\ b_1 \\ b_2 \\ \vdots \\ b_n \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0(b_0 - 0) \\ 1(b_1 - b_0) \\ 2(b_2 - b_1) \\ \vdots \\ n(b_n - b_{n-1}) \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \nabla b_0 \\ 1 \nabla b_1 \\ 2 \nabla b_2 \\ \vdots \\ n \nabla b_n \end{pmatrix}
\end{aligned}$$

This prove the equation (2) for $p = 1$. □

2 DIVISION I

In this section we prove the division of a binomial transform. We set the next matrices

$$D_1 = (d_{ij}) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{1}{2} & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \frac{1}{3} & \cdots & 0 & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & \frac{1}{n} & 0 \end{pmatrix}; \quad H_n = (h_{ij}) = \binom{i}{j} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 0 \\ 2 & 1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 0 \\ 3 & 3 & 1 & \cdots & 0 & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots \\ n & \frac{n(n-1)}{2} & \binom{n}{3} & \cdots & n & 1 \end{pmatrix};$$

$$H = (b_{ij}) = \binom{i}{j} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 2 & 1 & \cdots & 0 & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 1 & n & \frac{n(n-1)}{2} & \cdots & n & 1 \end{pmatrix}; \quad U = (u_{ij}) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & \cdots & 0 & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & \cdots & 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Proposition 2.1. *Let U, H, D_1 matrices of order $n + 1$, with as above then we have*

$$D_1 U H = H D_1. \quad (3)$$

Proof. The rc -component with $0 \leq r, c \leq n$, of LHS of (3) is

$$\sum_{k=0}^n \sum_{l=0}^n d_{rk} u_{kl} b_{lc} = \sum_{l=0}^r \frac{1}{r+1} \binom{l}{c} = \frac{1}{r+1} \sum_{l=0}^r \binom{l}{c} = \frac{1}{r+1} \binom{r+1}{c+1} = \frac{1}{c+1} \binom{r}{c},$$

that element is the rc -component with $0 \leq r, c \leq n$ of RHS of (3). \square

we have that the matrices $D_1 U$ and D_1 are similar therefore

$$(D_1 U)^p H = H D_1^p.$$

Corollary 2.1. *We have*

$$\sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} \frac{a_k}{k+1} = \frac{1}{n+1} \sum_{m=0}^n b_m. \quad (4)$$

Proof. let $A(n) = (a_0, a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n)^T$, $B(n) = (b_0, b_1, b_2, \dots, b_n)^T$ and $HA(n) = B(n)$

The LHS of (4) is the last column vector component of

$$H D_1 A(n) = D_1 U H A(n) = D_1 U B(n)$$

that is none other the RHS of (4). \square

Proposition 2.2. Let U, H_n, D_1 matrices of order n , with as above then we have this relation

$$UD_1H_n = H_nD_1. \quad (5)$$

Proof. Let $1 \leq r, c \leq n$. the rc -component of LHS (5) is

$$\sum_{k=1}^n \sum_{l=1}^n u_{rk} d_{k,l} h_{lc} = \sum_{k=1}^r \frac{1}{k} \binom{k}{c} = \sum_{k=1}^r \frac{1}{c} \binom{k-1}{c-1} = \frac{1}{c} \sum_{k=1}^r \binom{k-1}{c-1} = \frac{1}{c} \binom{r}{c},$$

that element is the rc -component of RHS of (5) then the proposition is demonstrated. \square

The formula (5) proves that the matrices UD_1 and D_1 are similar so we have this relation

$$(UD_1)^p H_n = H_n D_1^p. \quad (6)$$

Corollary 2.2. We set $a_0 = b_0 = 0$. Then

$$\sum_{k=1}^n \binom{n}{k} \frac{a_k}{k} = \sum_{m=1}^n \frac{b_m}{m}. \quad (7)$$

Proof. let $A(n) = (a_1, a_2, a_3, \dots, a_n)^T$, $B(n) = (b_1, b_2, b_3, \dots, b_n)^T$ and $H_n A(n) = B(n)$

The LHS of (7) can be written as the last component of the column vector of

$$H_n D_1 A(n) = UD_1 H_n A(n) = UD_1 B(n)$$

that is none other the RHS of (7). \square

Example 2.1. We set $A(n) = (a_n) = (1, -1, \dots, (-1)^{n-1}) \in \mathbb{Z}^n$; $B(n) = (b_n) = (1, \dots, 1) \in \mathbb{Z}^n$ and $a_0 = 0, b_0 = 0$. Then we have

$$\sum_{k=1}^n \binom{n}{k} \frac{(-1)^{k-1}}{k} = \sum_{m=1}^n \frac{1}{m} =: H_n. \quad (8)$$

and by inversion we have

$$\sum_{k=1}^n \binom{n}{k} (-1)^{k-1} H_k = \frac{1}{n}. \quad (9)$$

Proof. The LHS of (8) can be written as the last component of column vector of $H_n D_1 A(n) = UD_1 H_n A(n) = UD_1 B(n)$ that is none other than the RHS of (8). \square

Example 2.2. We set $H(n) = (H_1, H_2, \dots, H_n)$. We have this relation:

$$\sum_{k=1}^n \binom{n}{k} \frac{(-1)^{k-1}}{k^2} = \sum_{m=1}^n \frac{H_m}{m}. \quad (10)$$

Proof. In this case we use the relation $(UD_1)(UD_1)H_n = (UD_1)^2H_n = H_nD_1^2$.

The LHS of (10) can be written as the last term of column vector of

$$H_nD_1^2A(n) = UD_1UD_1H_nA(n) = UD_1UD_1B(n) = UD_1H(n)$$

that element is the RHS of (10). □

3 Power

In this part we provide a formula to find a power of lower triangular matrix i.g.

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} R(1,1) \\ R(2,1) \\ R(3,1) \\ \vdots \\ R(n,1) \end{pmatrix} := \begin{pmatrix} x_1 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 0 \\ x_1 & x_2 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 0 \\ x_1 & x_2 & x_3 & \cdots & 0 & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots \\ x_1 & x_2 & x_3 & \cdots & x_{n-1} & x_n \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & \cdots & 0 & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & \cdots & 1 & \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_1 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & x_2 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & x_3 & \cdots & 0 & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & x_n & \end{pmatrix} = UD_x.$$

and we set $R(i, p)$ the i row vector of A^p .

and we use the complete homogeneous symmetric polynomial of degree k in n variables x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n ,

written h_k for $k = 0, 1, 2, \dots$, is the sum of all monomials of total degree k in the variables. Formally,

$$h_k(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } k = 0; \\ \sum_{1 \leq i_1 \leq i_2 \leq \dots \leq i_k \leq n} x_{i_1} x_{i_2} \cdots x_{i_k}, & \text{if } k \geq 1. \end{cases}$$

and we have the recurrence relation for the Complete homogeneous symmetric polynomial

$$\begin{aligned}
h_p(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) &= \sum_{\substack{1 \leq i_1 \leq i_2 \leq \dots \leq i_k \leq n \\ p\text{-elements}}} x_{i_1} x_{i_2} \dots x_{i_k} = \\
\sum_{l=1}^n x_l \sum_{\substack{1 \leq i_1 \leq i_2 \leq \dots \leq i_{k-1} \leq l \\ (p-1)\text{-elements}}} x_{i_1} x_{i_2} \dots x_{i_{k-1}} &= \sum_{l=1}^n x_l h_{p-1}(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_l). \tag{11}
\end{aligned}$$

Lemma 3.1.

$$A^p(1, 1, \dots, 1)^T = (h_p(x_1), h_p(x_1, x_2), \dots, h_p(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n))^T \tag{12}$$

Proof. We use induction on p . It is clear that the formula (12) is true for $p = 1$. Then we shall show that the formula holds for $p + 1$ and we assume that it holds for p , by using (11) we have

$$\begin{aligned}
A^{p+1}(1, 1, \dots, 1)^T &= AA^p(1, 1, \dots, 1)^T = A(h_p(x_1), h_p(x_1, x_2), \dots, h_p(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n))^T = \\
UD_x(h_p(x_1), h_p(x_1, x_2), \dots, h_p(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n))^T &= (h_{p+1}(x_1), h_{p+1}(x_1, x_2), \dots, h_{p+1}(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n))^T. \tag{13}
\end{aligned}$$

□

Theorem 3.1. Let $p \geq 1$. We set $A^p(i, j)$ the ij -component of A^p . Then the lower triangular matrix is

$$A^p(i, j) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } j > i; \\ h_{p-1}(x_j, x_{j+1}, \dots, x_i)x_j & \text{if } i \geq j. \end{cases}$$

Proof. The proof is by induction. For $p = 1$ is the definition. We prove for $p = 2$, because we see the induction step, and we do the calculation only in the first column vector of A^2 .

$$A(x_1, x_1, \dots, x_1)^T = x_1 A(1, 1, \dots, 1)^T = (x_1 h_1(x_1), x_1 h_1(x_1, x_2), \dots, x_1 h_1(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n))^T \tag{14}$$

by induction and by relation (13) we have.

$$\begin{aligned}
A^{p+1} &= A(x_1 h_{p-1}(x_1), x_1 h_{p-1}(x_1, x_2), \dots, x_1 h_{p-1}(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n))^T = \\
x_1 A(h_{p-1}(x_1), h_{p-1}(x_1, x_2), \dots, h_{p-1}(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n))^T &= x_1 (h_p(x_1), h_p(x_1, x_2), \dots, h_p(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n))^T.
\end{aligned}$$

□

Example 3.1. We set $A(n) = (a_n) = (1, -1, \dots, (-1)^{n-1}) \in \mathbb{Z}^n$; $B(n) = (b_n) = (1, \dots, 1) \in \mathbb{Z}^n$ and $a_0 = 0, b_0 = 0$. Then we have

$$\sum_{k=1}^n \binom{n}{k} \frac{(-1)^{k-1}}{k^2} = \sum_{1 \leq k_1 \leq k_2}^n \frac{1}{k_1 k_2}. \quad (15)$$

Proof. In this case we define the sequence of numbers x_i by $x_i = \frac{1}{i}$. By using the notation of Section 2 and the formula (14), then we have this relation:

The LHS of (15) can be written as the last term of column vector of $H_n D_1^2 A(n) = (UD_1)^2 H_n A(n) = (UD_1)^2 B(n) = (UD_1)^2 (1, 1, \dots, 1)^t$ that is none other the RHS of (15). □

Example 3.2. We have this relation:

$$\sum_{k=1}^n \binom{n}{k} \frac{(-1)^{k-1}}{k^m} = \sum_{1 \leq k_1 \leq k_2 \leq k_3 \leq \dots \leq k_m \leq n} \frac{1}{k_1 k_2 k_3 \dots k_m}. \quad (16)$$

Proof. The LHS of (16) can be written as the last term of column vector of $H_n D_1^m A(n) = (UD_1)^m H_n A(n) = (UD_1)^m B(n) = (UD_1)^m (1, 1, \dots, 1)^t$ that is the RHS of (16). □

Those examples were obtained, in different way, by K. Dilcher [2] and by K- N. Boyadzhiev [1].

4 DIVISION II

We call the following matrices of order n .

$$D_x = \begin{pmatrix} 1+x & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 0 \\ -2 & 2+x & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -3 & 3+x & \cdots & 0 & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & -n & n+x \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 0 \\ -2 & 2 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -3 & 3 & \cdots & 0 & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & -n & n \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} x & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & x & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & x & \cdots & 0 & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & x \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\overline{D}_x = (1+x, 2+x, \dots, n+x) = \begin{pmatrix} 1+x & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2+x & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 3+x & \cdots & 0 & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & n+x \end{pmatrix};$$

$$H_n = \binom{(n)}{(k)} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 0 \\ 2 & 1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 0 \\ 3 & 3 & 1 & \cdots & 0 & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots \\ n & \frac{n(n-1)}{2} & \binom{n}{3} & \cdots & n & 1 \end{pmatrix};$$

Proposition 4.1. *let D_x, H_n, \overline{D}_x with as above then we have*

$$D_x H_n = H_n \overline{D}_x. \quad (17)$$

Proof. In this proof we are going to transform D_x in a sum of two matrices diagonalizable for the same matrix H_n i.e. the first is a square submatrix of matrix P of Lemma (1.1) the second is a scalar matrix. □

Theorem 4.1. *We assume $x_i \neq 0$ and we define the next lower triangular matrix of orden n ,*

$$D_x = \begin{pmatrix} x_1 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 0 \\ -2 & x_2 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -3 & x_3 & \cdots & 0 & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & -n & x_n \end{pmatrix}; \text{ then the inverse matrix } D_x^{-1} \text{ is}$$

$$D_x^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{x_1} & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 0 \\ \frac{2}{x_1 x_2} & \frac{1}{x_2} & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 0 \\ \frac{6}{x_1 x_2 x_3} & \frac{3}{x_2 x_3} & \frac{1}{x_3} & \cdots & 0 & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots \\ \frac{(n-1)!}{x_1 x_2 \cdots x_{n-1}} & \frac{(n-1)! x_1}{2 x_1 x_2 \cdots x_{n-1}} & \frac{(n-1)! x_1 x_2}{3! x_1 x_2 \cdots x_{n-1}} & \cdots & \frac{(n-1)! x_1 \cdots x_{n-3} x_{n-2}}{(n-1)! x_1 \cdots x_{n-2} x_{n-1}} & 0 \\ \frac{n!}{x_1 x_2 \cdots x_n} & \frac{n! x_1}{2 x_1 x_2 \cdots x_n} & \frac{n! x_1 x_2}{3! x_1 x_2 \cdots x_n} & \cdots & \frac{n! x_1 \cdots x_{n-3} x_{n-2}}{(n-1)! x_1 \cdots x_{n-1} x_n} & \frac{n! x_1 \cdots x_{n-2} x_{n-1}}{n! x_1 \cdots x_{n-1} x_n} \end{pmatrix} \quad (18)$$

Proof. Is very simple to do that $D_x D_x^{-1} = I_n$ □

Proposition 4.2. *We assume $x \in \mathbb{N}$, $x_0 = 1, x_1 = 1 + x, x_2 = 2 + x, \cdots, x_n = n + x, \binom{a}{b}$ The Stirling numbers of the first kind unsigned. Then the n -row of matrix D_x^{-1} is:*

$$\left(\frac{n!}{x_1 x_2 \cdots x_n}, \frac{n! x_1}{2 x_1 x_2 \cdots x_n}, \frac{n! x_1 x_2}{3! x_1 x_2 \cdots x_n}, \dots, \frac{n! x_1 \cdots x_{n-2} x_{n-1}}{n! x_1 \cdots x_{n-1} x_n} \right) =$$

$$\left(\frac{\sum_{l=0}^{x-1} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ l+1 \end{bmatrix} 1^l}{(n+1)(n+2)\cdots(n+x)}, \frac{\sum_{l=0}^{x-1} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ l+1 \end{bmatrix} 2^l}{(n+1)(n+2)\cdots(n+x)}, \frac{\sum_{l=0}^{x-1} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ l+1 \end{bmatrix} 3^l}{(n+1)(n+2)\cdots(n+x)}, \dots, \frac{\sum_{l=0}^{x-1} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ l+1 \end{bmatrix} n^l}{(n+1)(n+2)\cdots(n+x)} \right) \quad (19)$$

Proof. The proof is divided in two steps: the first one by using the condition $n \geq x \geq 1$ and the second one $x \geq n$.

1° Step. Let $n \geq x \geq 1$. We take the k component of LHS of (19) and by using the rising factorial we have.

$$\frac{n! x_1 x_2 \cdots x_{k-1}}{k! x_1 x_2 \cdots x_n} = \frac{n! \cdot 1 \cdot 2 \cdots x \cdot (x+1) \cdot (x+2) \cdots (x+k-1)}{k! \cdot 1 \cdot 2 \cdots x \cdot (x+1)(x+2) \cdots (x+n)} = \frac{n! \cdot 1 \cdot 2 \cdots x \cdot (x+1) \cdot (x+2) \cdots (x+k-1)}{k! \cdot 1 \cdot 2 \cdots x \cdot (x+1)(x+2) \cdots (x+n-x) \cdot (x+n-x+1) \cdots (x+n)}$$

$$= \frac{(x+k-1)!}{k!} \frac{1}{(n+1)(n+2)\cdots(x+n)} = \sum_{l=0}^{x-1} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ l+1 \end{bmatrix} k^l \frac{1}{(n+1)(n+2)\cdots(x+n)}$$

That is the k component of RHS of (19).

2° Step. Let $x \geq n \geq 1$. We take the k component of LHS of (19) and by using the rising factorial we have.

$$\frac{n! x_1 x_2 \cdots x_{k-1}}{k! x_1 x_2 \cdots x_n} = \frac{n!(n+1) \cdot (n+2) \cdots (n+x-n)(1+x)(2+x) \cdots (k-1+x)}{k!(n+1) \cdot (n+2) \cdots (n+x-n)(1+x)(x+2) \cdots (n+x)} = \frac{(k-1+x)!}{k!} \frac{1}{(n+1) \cdot (n+2) \cdots (n+x-n)(1+x)(x+2) \cdots (n+x)}$$

$$= \sum_{l=0}^{x-1} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ l+1 \end{bmatrix} k^l \frac{1}{(n+1)(n+2)\cdots(x+n)}$$

That is the k component of RHS of (19).

□

Example 4.1. let $A(n) = (a_1, a_2, a_3, \dots, a_n)^T$, $B(n) = (b_1, b_2, b_3, \dots, b_n)^T$ and $H_n A(n) = B(n)$ then

$$\sum_{k=1}^n \binom{n}{k} \frac{a_k}{k+1} = \frac{1}{n+1} \sum_{m=1}^n b_m. \quad (20)$$

Proof. In the equation (17) we set $x = 1$ therefore $x_1 = 2, x_2 = 3, \dots, x_n = n + 1$.

We call $\overline{D}_1(2, 3, \dots, n+1)$ the diagonal matrix then using the formula (18) we have

$$\overline{D}_1^{-1} = \overline{D}_1^{-1}(2, 3, \dots, n+1)^T = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{2} & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 0 \\ \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3} & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 0 \\ \frac{1}{4} & \frac{1}{4} & \frac{1}{4} & \cdots & 0 & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots \\ \frac{1}{n+1} & \frac{1}{n+1} & \frac{1}{n+1} & \cdots & \frac{1}{n+1} & \frac{1}{n+1} \end{pmatrix}$$

The LHS of (20) can be written as the last component of column vector

$$\left(\binom{n}{k} \frac{a_k}{k+1} \right) = H_n \overline{D}_x^{-1} A(n)^T = H_n \overline{D}_x^{-1} H_n^{-1} B(n)^T = \overline{D}_1^{-1}(2, 3, 4, \dots, n+1) B(n)^T \quad (21)$$

that is none other than the RHS of (20). \square

5 APPLICATION

Theorem 5.1. Let $1 \leq x \in \mathbb{N}$. We set $\left[\begin{smallmatrix} a \\ b \end{smallmatrix} \right]$ The Stirling numbers of the first kind unsigned. $Z[n, r] = \sum_{l=1}^n l^r$ and we set: $\sum_{l=1}^0 \left[\begin{smallmatrix} x \\ l+1 \end{smallmatrix} \right] Z[n, l-1] = 0$.
 $A(n) = (a_n) = (H_1, -H_2, \dots, (-1)^{n-1} H_n) \in \mathbb{Q}^n$; $B(n) = (b_n) = (1, \frac{1}{2}, \dots, \frac{1}{n})$ and $a_0 = 0, b_0 = 0$. Then we have this formula.

$$\sum_{k=1}^n \binom{n}{k} (-1)^{k-1} \frac{H_k}{k+x} = \frac{\sum_{l=1}^{x-1} \left[\begin{smallmatrix} x \\ l+1 \end{smallmatrix} \right] Z[n, l-1] + (x-1)! H_n}{(n+1)(n+2) \cdots (n+x)}. \quad (22)$$

Remark We can use Faulhaber's formula to obtain zeta function.

Proof. :We give the proof in two steps, the firstly using the condition $x = 1$, and the secondly using the condition $x \neq 1$.

By using the relation (19) the LHS of (22) is

$$\left(\binom{n}{k} \frac{(-1)^{k-1} H_k}{k+x} \right) = H_n \overline{D}_x^{-1} A(n)^T = H_n \overline{D}_x^{-1} H_n^{-1} B(n)^T = \overline{D}_x^{-1} B(n)^T \quad (23)$$

1° Step. Let $x = 1$, in this case the formula (22) is

$$\sum_{k=1}^n \binom{n}{k} (-1)^{k-1} \frac{H_k}{k+1} = \frac{H_n}{(n+1)}. \quad (24)$$

This formula (24) is the formula (20) the example(4.1).

2° Step. Let $x \neq 1$, and $x_0 = 1, x_1 = 1 + x, x_2 = 2 + x, \dots, x_n = n + x$. Let $k \in [1, 2, 3 \dots, n]$. By the

Proposition (5.1) the k component of the last row of matrix (18) is

$$\frac{1}{(n+1)(n+2)(n+3)\dots(n+x)} \sum_{l=0}^{x-1} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ l+1 \end{bmatrix} k^l = \frac{1}{(n+1)(n+2)(n+3)\dots(n+x)} \left(\sum_{l=1}^{x-1} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ l+1 \end{bmatrix} k^l + (x-1)! \right)$$

The RHS of equation(23) is

$$\sum_{k=1}^n \frac{\sum_{l=1}^{x-1} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ l+1 \end{bmatrix} k^l + (x-1)!}{(n+1)(n+2)(n+3)\dots(n+x)} \frac{1}{k} = \frac{\sum_{l=1}^{x-1} \sum_{k=1}^n \begin{bmatrix} x \\ l+1 \end{bmatrix} k^{l-1} + (x-1)!H_n}{(n+1)(n+2)(n+3)\dots(n+x)}$$
 this the RHS of equation (22).

□

Example 5.1. We have this relation for $x = 2$:

$$\sum_{k=1}^n \binom{n}{k} (-1)^{k-1} \frac{H_k}{k+2} = \frac{n + H_n}{(n+1)(n+2)} \quad (25)$$

Example 5.2. We have this relation for $x = 3$:

$$\sum_{k=1}^n \binom{n}{k} (-1)^{k-1} \frac{H_k}{k+3} = \frac{n^2 + 7n + 4H_n}{2(n+1)(n+2)(n+3)}. \quad (26)$$

Example 5.3. We have this relation for $x = 4$:

$$\sum_{k=1}^n \binom{n}{k} (-1)^{k-1} \frac{H_k}{k+4} = \frac{2n^3 + 21n^2 + 85n + 36H_n}{6(n+1)(n+2)(n+3)(n+4)}. \quad (27)$$

Those examples were obtained by Juneseng Choi and H.M.Srivastava [5] and by Khristo N. Boyadzhiev [1] by the other means.

Example 5.4. We have this relation for $x = 5$, this case in new. :

$$\sum_{k=1}^n \binom{n}{k} (-1)^{k-1} \frac{H_k}{k+5} = \frac{3n^4 + 40n^3 + 279n^2 + 830n + 288H_n}{12(n+1)(n+2)(n+3)(n+4)(n+5)}. \quad (28)$$

6 Appendix

Problem 10490: In this section we give another proof of problem 10490 [7]. As you can see in the proof the first element a_0 plays an important role

Theorem 6.1. Let $b_n = \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} a_k$. For any $n \geq 0$, we have

$$\sum_{k=1}^n \frac{b_k}{k} = \sum_{k=1}^n \binom{n}{k} \frac{a_k}{k} + a_0 \sum_{l=1}^n \frac{1}{l}. \quad (29)$$

Boyadzhiev [1] has another proof.

$$\begin{aligned}
\text{Proof. } \sum_{l=1}^n \frac{b_l}{l} &= \sum_{l=1}^n \frac{\sum_{k=0}^l \binom{l}{k} a_k}{l} = \sum_{l=1}^n \sum_{k=0}^l \frac{\binom{l}{k} a_k}{l} = \sum_{l=1}^n \sum_{k=0}^n \frac{\binom{l}{k} a_k}{l} = \sum_{k=0}^n \sum_{l=1}^n \frac{\binom{l}{k} a_k}{l} = \\
&= \sum_{k=1}^n \sum_{l=1}^n \frac{\binom{l}{k} a_k}{l} + \sum_{l=1}^n \frac{\binom{l}{0} a_0}{l} = \sum_{k=1}^n \sum_{l=1}^n \frac{\frac{l}{k} \binom{l-1}{k-1} a_k}{l} + \sum_{l=1}^n \frac{a_0}{l} = \\
&= \sum_{k=1}^n \sum_{l=1}^n \frac{\binom{l-1}{k-1} a_k}{k} + \sum_{l=1}^n \frac{a_0}{l} = \sum_{k=1}^n \sum_{l=0}^{n-1} \frac{\binom{l}{k-1} a_k}{k} + \sum_{l=1}^n \frac{a_0}{l} = \\
&= \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{a_k}{k} \sum_{l=0}^{n-1} \binom{l}{k-1} + a_0 \sum_{l=1}^n \frac{1}{l} = \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{a_k}{k} \binom{n}{k} + a_0 \sum_{l=1}^n \frac{1}{l} = \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{a_k}{k} \binom{n}{k} + a_0 H_n. \quad \square
\end{aligned}$$

In this appendix we do another presentation, for $p \leq n$, of the theorem Boyadzhiev[1]

$\sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} k^p a_k = (n\nabla)^p b_n$. The proof uses the next lemma:

Lemma 6.1. *Let $p \leq n$. Then :*

$$\binom{n}{k} k^p = \sum_{l=0}^p \sum_{j=0}^p (-1)^l \binom{n-l}{k} \binom{n}{l} \binom{n-l}{j-l} j! \left\{ \begin{matrix} p \\ j \end{matrix} \right\}. \quad (30)$$

Proof. The RHS of (30) is the same of

$$\sum_{l=0}^p \sum_{j=0}^p (-1)^l \binom{n}{k} \binom{n-k}{l} \binom{n-l}{j-l} j! \left\{ \begin{matrix} p \\ j \end{matrix} \right\} = \binom{n}{k} \sum_{l=0}^p \sum_{j=0}^p (-1)^l \binom{n-k}{l} \binom{n-l}{j-l} j! \left\{ \begin{matrix} p \\ j \end{matrix} \right\}.$$

We proof the next relation $\sum_{l=0}^p (-1)^l \binom{n-k}{l} \binom{n-l}{j-l} = \binom{k}{j}$, because $l \leq j$ we have:

$$\sum_{l=0}^p (-1)^l \binom{n-k}{l} \binom{n-l}{j-l} = \sum_{l=0}^j (-1)^l \binom{n-k}{l} \binom{n-l}{j-l} = \sum_{l=0}^j \binom{-n+k+l-1}{l} \binom{n-l}{j-l}.$$

We set $x = k - n - 1$, $y = n - j$ by Gould[2] pag 22. We have.

$$\sum_{l=0}^j \binom{-n+k+l-1}{l} \binom{n-l}{j-l} = \sum_{l=0}^j \binom{x+l}{l} \binom{y+j-l}{j-l} = \binom{x+y+j+1}{j} = \binom{k}{j}. \text{ Therefore The}$$

RHS of (30) is $\binom{n}{k} k^p$. □

Here follow some examples of lemma(6.1).

$$\binom{n}{k} k^p = \begin{cases} n^2 \binom{n}{k} - n(2n-1) \binom{n-1}{k} + n(n-1) \binom{n-2}{k}, & \text{if } p=2; \\ n^3 \binom{n}{k} - n(3n^2-3n+1) \binom{n-1}{k} + 3n(n-1)^2 \binom{n-2}{k} - n(n-1)(n-2) \binom{n-3}{k}, & \text{if } p=3. \\ n^4 \binom{n}{k} - n(4n^3-6n^2+4n-1) \binom{n-1}{k} + n(6n^3-18n^2+19n-7) \binom{n-2}{k} - n(4n^3-18n^2+26n-12) \binom{n-3}{k} + \\ n(n-1)(n-2)(n-3) \binom{n-4}{k}, & \text{if } p=4; \\ n^p \binom{n}{k} + n(n^p - (n-1)^p) \binom{n-1}{k} + \dots + (-1)^p \binom{n}{p} p! \binom{n-p}{k}, & \text{for any } p \leq n; \end{cases}$$

Theorem 6.2. *Let $b_n = \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} a_k$. For every positive integer p and $n \geq p$, we have*

$$\sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} k^p a_k = \sum_{k=0}^n \sum_{l=0}^p \sum_{j=0}^p (-1)^l \binom{n-l}{k} \binom{n}{l} \binom{n-l}{j-l} j! \left\{ \begin{matrix} p \\ j \end{matrix} \right\} a_k = (n\nabla)^p b_n. \quad (31)$$

Remark 6.1. we set $P = (P_{ij}) = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 0 \\ -1 & 1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -2 & 2 & \cdots & 0 & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & -n & n \end{pmatrix}, 1 \leq p \leq n$ and $R(n, p)$ the n row of

matrix PP^p . $\forall l \in [0, 1, \dots, p]$ and by using (1.2), (2) and (31) we have .

$$R(n, p) = \left(\underbrace{0, \dots, 0}_{n-p}, \underbrace{(-1)^p \binom{n}{p} p!}_{l=0}, \dots, \sum_{j=0}^p (-1)^{p-l} \binom{n}{p-l} \binom{n-p+l}{n-j} j! \left\{ \begin{matrix} p \\ j \end{matrix} \right\}, \dots, \underbrace{n^p}_{l=p} \right)$$

7 Examples

In this section we shall use the above lemma in order to obtain a new proof of examples of Boyadzhiev [1] and Spivey [6].

Example 7.1. Spivey [6]. Let $\{a_n = 1\}$ and $\{b_n = 2^n\}$ sequences with property $\sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} a_k = b^n$. Let $m \leq n$ then

$$\sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} k^m = \sum_{l=0}^m \binom{n}{l} \left\{ \begin{matrix} m \\ l \end{matrix} \right\} l! 2^{n-l} \quad (32)$$

Proof. By (31) the LHS (32) is

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{k=0}^n \sum_{l=0}^m \sum_{j=0}^m (-1)^l \binom{n-l}{k} \binom{n}{l} \binom{n-l}{j-l} j! \left\{ \begin{matrix} m \\ j \end{matrix} \right\} &= \sum_{l=0}^m \sum_{j=0}^m (-1)^l 2^{n-l} \binom{n}{l} \binom{n-l}{j-l} j! \left\{ \begin{matrix} m \\ j \end{matrix} \right\} = \\ \sum_{l=0}^m \sum_{j=0}^m (-1)^l 2^{n-l} \binom{n}{n-l} \binom{n-l}{n-j} j! \left\{ \begin{matrix} m \\ j \end{matrix} \right\} &= \sum_{l=0}^j \sum_{j=0}^m (-1)^l 2^{n-l} \binom{n}{j} \binom{j}{j-l} j! \left\{ \begin{matrix} m \\ j \end{matrix} \right\} = \\ \sum_{j=0}^m 2^{n-j} \sum_{l=0}^j (-1)^l 2^{j-l} \binom{j}{l} \binom{n}{j} j! \left\{ \begin{matrix} m \\ j \end{matrix} \right\} &= \sum_{j=0}^m \binom{n}{j} \left\{ \begin{matrix} m \\ j \end{matrix} \right\} j! 2^{n-j} \end{aligned}$$

□

Example 7.2. Let $a_k = x^k$, where x is any real or complex number. Then $b_n = -(1-x)^n$.

We have this relation in our case $p \leq n$.

$$\sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} (-1)^k k^p x^k = \sum_{j=0}^p \binom{n}{j} \left\{ \begin{matrix} p \\ j \end{matrix} \right\} j! (-1)^j x^j (1-x)^{n-j} \quad (33)$$

Proof. The RHS of (33) is the same of this :

$$\sum_{j=0}^p \sum_{l=0}^j \binom{n}{j} \binom{j}{l} \left\{ \begin{matrix} p \\ j \end{matrix} \right\} j! (-1)^l (1-x)^{n-l} = \sum_{j=0}^p \sum_{l=0}^p \binom{n}{l} \binom{n-l}{j-l} \left\{ \begin{matrix} p \\ j \end{matrix} \right\} j! (-1)^l (1-x)^{n-l}.$$

By the lemma the LHS of (33) is :

$$\sum_{k=0}^n \sum_{l=0}^p \sum_{j=0}^p (-1)^k (-1)^l \binom{n-l}{k} \binom{n}{l} \binom{n-l}{j-l} j! \left\{ \begin{matrix} p \\ j \end{matrix} \right\} x^k = \sum_{l=0}^p \sum_{j=0}^p (-1)^l \binom{n}{l} \binom{n-l}{j-l} j! \left\{ \begin{matrix} p \\ j \end{matrix} \right\} (1-x)^{n-l}. \quad \square$$

Remark 7.1. Of course, for $x = -1$ the equation (33) is the same of equation (32).

Example 7.3. Let $a_k = H_k = 1 + \frac{1}{2} + \cdots + \frac{1}{k}$, where $k > 0, a_0 = 0, p \leq n$. Then $b_0 = 0$ and for $n > 0$ we have $b_n = \frac{-1}{n}$, then we have a formula:

$$\sum_{k=1}^n (-1)^k \binom{n}{k} H_k k^p = (-1)^n n! \left\{ \begin{matrix} p \\ n \end{matrix} \right\} H_n - \sum_{k=1}^{p-1} \frac{(-1)^k k! \left\{ \begin{matrix} p \\ k \end{matrix} \right\}}{n-k} \quad (34)$$

Proof. Let $p < n$, then the LHS of (34) is

$$\sum_{l=1}^p \sum_{j=0}^p (-1)^l \frac{-1}{n-l} \binom{n}{l} \binom{n-l}{j-l} j! \left\{ \begin{matrix} p \\ j \end{matrix} \right\} = \sum_{l=1}^p \sum_{j=0}^p (-1)^l \frac{-1}{n-j} \binom{n}{l} \binom{n-l-1}{j-l-1} j! \left\{ \begin{matrix} p \\ j \end{matrix} \right\}.$$

By using the same method of (30) we have:

$$\sum_{l=0}^p (-1)^l \frac{-1}{n-l} \binom{n}{l} \binom{n-l}{j-l} = -\frac{(-1)^j}{n-j}.$$

Let $p = n$, then the LHS of (34) is

$$\sum_{l=1}^{n-1} \sum_{j=0}^n (-1)^l \frac{-1}{n-l} \binom{n}{l} \binom{n-l}{j-l} j! \left\{ \begin{matrix} n \\ j \end{matrix} \right\} = \sum_{l=1}^{n-1} \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} (-1)^l \frac{-1}{n-j} \binom{n}{l} \binom{n-l-1}{j-l-1} j! \left\{ \begin{matrix} n \\ j \end{matrix} \right\} + \sum_{l=0}^{n-1} -\frac{(-1)^l}{n-l} \binom{n}{l} n! \left\{ \begin{matrix} n \\ n \end{matrix} \right\}.$$

This is the RHS of (34) □

Example 7.4. Let F_0, F_1, \dots, F_n be the sequence of Fibonacci numbers, where $F_n = F_{n-1} + F_{n-2}$ and

$$\sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} (-1)^k F_k = -F_n \text{ we have:}$$

$$\sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} (-1)^k k^2 F_k = -nF_{n-3} - n^2 F_{n-4}. \quad (35)$$

Proof. The LHS of (35) is:

$$\sum_{k=0}^n (n^2 \binom{n}{k} (-1)^k F_k - n(2n-1) \binom{n-1}{k} (-1)^k F_k + n(n-1) \binom{n-2}{k} (-1)^k F_k) = -n^2 F_n + n(2n-1) F_{n-1} - n(n-1) F_{n-2} = -nF_{n-3} - n^2 F_{n-4}. \quad \square$$

Example 7.5. Let F_0, F_1, \dots, F_n be the sequence of Fibonacci numbers, where $F_n = F_{n-1} + F_{n-2}$ and

$$\sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} (-1)^k F_k = -F_n \text{ then:}$$

$$\sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} (-1)^k k^3 F_k = -n^3 F_n + n(3n^2 - 3n + 1) F_{n-1} - 3n(n-1)^2 F_{n-2} + n(n-1)(n-2) F_{n-3}. \quad (36)$$

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